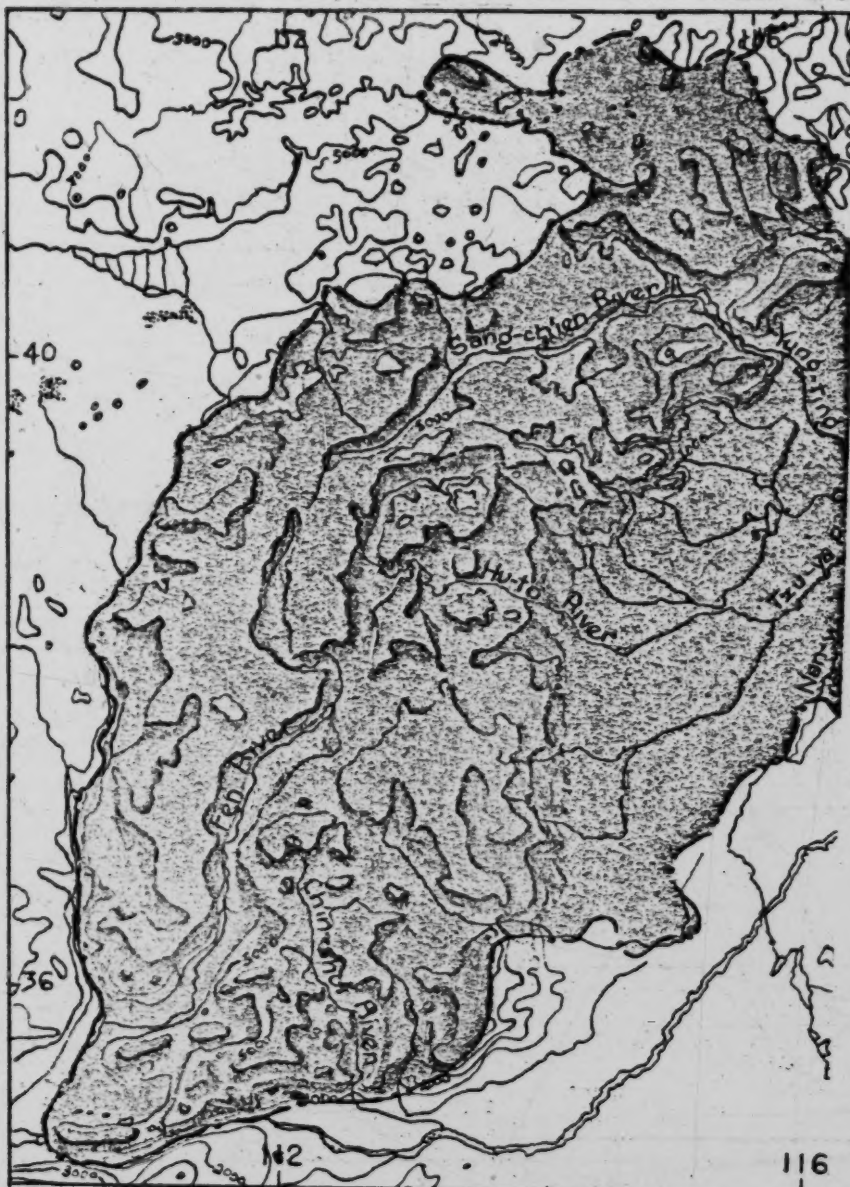


1: Stanford U. S-4, 5 1956 AF12 North China AF12

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NORTH CHINA TOPOGRAPHIC

[facing page 1]
-D₁-

1: Stanford U. S-4, 5 1956 AF12 North China AF12

• 133



[facing page 1]
-D₂-

101 Region, Liaoning Province, and Hopei Province was passed during the closing sessions of the People's Congress in Peking toward the end of July, 1955. The references to North China in this chapter, however, are based on the 1954 information because the details of the latest change are still unavailable.^{2/}

TOPOGRAPHY

- 133 This region is composed of an impressive tableland in the west and a huge alluvial plain in the east. The difference in elevation between the two halves amounts to about 2,000 meters (6,500 ft.).

1. Mountains: The mountains on the northern border of this region are an extension of the great Yin Shan Range that forms a natural line of demarcation which used to separate the Chinese from the Mongols. These mountains are, from west to east, the Ta-hai-t'o, the Chün-tu, and the Yen-shan, each about 1,000 meters (3,280 ft.) in height and all having steep southern approaches. Rising an average of 2,000 meters (6,560 ft.) in the middle and extending throughout the region is the T'ai-hang Range which marks the end of the Northwest China highland. At the northern tip of

133
778
788

^{2/} For details of political subdivisions as of 1954, see the chapter on Structure of Government.

¹³³₇₇₈⁷⁸⁸ this range stand two noted summits, the Heng-shan, traditionally known as Pei-yüeh (one of the five sacred mountains), and the Wu-t'ai-shan, or Five-Table Mountain, so-called because of its summit having five flat peaks. The historic religious buildings on the Wu-t'ai-shan have been destinations of uninterrupted Buddhistic pilgrimage through the centuries. These two mountains measure 2, 200 meters (7, 216 ft.) in height respectively. To the west of the T'ai-hang in the southern half of Shansi Province is Huo-shan Mountain (2, 200 m. or 7, 216 ft.). To the northwest rises the Yün-chung Range. The Lü-liang Range, with peaks of 2, 000 to 2, 500 (6, 580-8, 200 ft.) lies along the western border of the region.

The entire province of Shansi is a plateau with an average elevation of 1, 000 meters (3, 280 ft.). To the people on the Hopei plain, the T'ai-hang Mountains are towering escarpments; but to dwellers on the Shansi Plateau, the same mountains seem relatively small.

Of course, there are also scattered lower gullies and basins in Shansi Province, and these are generally found along the rivers that have gnawed their way through the mountains to spill off the tableland.

2. Rivers:^{3/} In the northeastern corner of the region is the Lwan (Luan) River. It flows out

^{3/} Ch'en Shih-chien, Chung-kuo Ti Ho-liu [The Rivers of China], Peking, San-lien ch'u-pan-she, 1950, p. 32.

133 of the Yen-shan Mountains southeastward into the
Gulf of Po-hai. As a waterway the Lwan River
133 can carry sampan traffic only about 524 kilometers
506(325 mi.) from its estuary. Farther west is the
503 Hai River (Ku River) which irrigates most parts
of northern and western Hopei Province. It re-
ceives water from four major tributaries, the
Ch'ao-pai from the north, the Yung-ting from the
west, the Tzu-ya from the southwest, and the
Nan-yün-ho (South Canal) from the south. On
these tributaries, some sampan traffic is possible
most of the year. Their combined water fills the
Hai River sufficiently to bring vessels inland from
the Tangku New Harbor to dock at Tientsin. The
recently-completed (Spring 1954) reservoir system
on the Yung-ting River further improved control
of the flow in that river, and, according to the
Peking government, eliminates once and for all
the flood hazards in the central north area of
Hopei Province.

133 The South Canal, a man-made waterway which
503 connects the Hwai and the Yellow rivers in the
East China Region with the Hai River, is an im-
portant waterway system in its own right.

133 Issuing from the T'ai-hang Range are a few
minor rivers: the Sang-ch'ien River (also known as
Sang-kan, the upper reaches of the Yung-ting) in
the north along which is the high Sang-ch'ien basin;
the Hu-t'o River (upper reaches of the Tzu-ya) a
short distance to the south, and several other
small rivers which flow eastward to join the Hai
River system. Between the T'ai-hang and the Huo-
shan mountain ranges the Ch'in-shui River runs

133 southwesterly to join the might Yellow River outside the region. The Ch'in-shui is not a large river and the valley along it is narrow. The largest river in Shansi is the Fen River. This 133 river flows through the Hsin-hsien, Taiyuan, and 505 Lin-fen basins. The last basin is the lowest in the province, only 450 meters (1,476 ft.) above sea level. In high water seasons, wooden junks can sail from the river's juncture with the Yellow River upstream to the city of Hsin-chiang. ^{4/}

A section of the Yellow River forms the western boundary of North China. This is one of the worst sections of the river, completely unnavigable; the current, locked between two mountain ranges, is far too swift and the course too rocky for passage. A waterfall 9 meters (29 ft.) high cuts the river at Hu-k'ou where the span of the river also narrows from over 100 meters to 52 meters (328-170 ft.). Southward from Hu-k'ou down to Lung-men, the river resembles the famous gorges of the upper Yangtze River. Overhanging cliffs rise hundreds of feet on both sides of the river. Below Lung-men, (the dragon gate), the river receives the Fen River and widens to provide safe sailing for small river boats all the way around the sharp south-to-east bend of the river to Shan-hsien on the southern border of this region. East of Shan-hsien the river again narrows and flows through mountain gulches and cuts three channels at San-men-hsia.

^{4/} Ibid., pp. 40-49.

133 The three channels are traditionally named the
505 God, the Ghost, and the Man. From these names
it can be readily seen that boatmen have been
finding safe passage only through the last chan-
nel. As the river flows farther eastward to
reach the edge of the region at Yüan-ch'ü, the
current eases somewhat to a more hospitable
flow. 5/

133 3. Coastline: This region's limited coastline
504 opens to the Gulf of Po-hai. Because it is on the
fringe of an alluvial plain, its potentiality for
seaports is limited unless extensive dredging is
done. Chinwangtao was formerly the only na-
tural port, but it was handicapped by its position
which required a long overland haul for cargoes
passing through this port. However, the fact
that it is almost completely ice-free adds to its
value. 6/ The completion of the Tangku New
Harbor (October 17, 1952) improves considerably
the position of Tientsin as the most important
port in this region. Described a major man-made
harbor, the New Harbor encompasses a 20-square-
kilometer (7.7 sq. mi.) body of water, complete
with two breakwaters, 20 kilometers (18.6 mi.)
long altogether, designed to accommodate vessels
up to 10,000 tons. 7/

5/ Ibid.

6/ George B. Cressey, China's Geographic Foundations, New York, McGraw-Hill, 1934, p. 177;
Ch'u Shao-t'ang, Hsin Chung-kuo Ti-li [The Geo-
graphy of New China], Shanghai, Ta Chung-kuo
t'u-shu-chü, 1953, p. 61.

7/ Atlas of the People's Republic of China by
Province, Shanghai, T'i-t'u ch'u-pan-she, 1953.

312 tion throughout the growing season made irrigation necessary for the growing of good crops in ordinary years and as insurance for at least minimum crops in drought years. Ground water was available fairly near the surface and in reasonably sufficient amounts. The water table varied from two to 40 feet below the surface, averaging about 14 feet. How this was developed for irrigation and domestic use is reported in Chapter XI.

133 Ting Hsien is part of the east China alluvial coastal plain, so there are no natural hills in the area. Dykes had been built to control the rivers and a few mounds had been built up to a height of some 30 or 40 feet. Local tradition says that one of these was piled up by the army to make the enemy believe it was a supply of food. Another appeared to be a large grave mound with a long entrance tunnel. The average elevation is about 100 feet above sea level.

134 The soil of the area is generally deep and fine textured, calcareous and somewhat saline. Along the river beds there usually is a considerable area covered with coarse sand. Elsewhere the soil is sandy loam, loam, and some clay.

133 The area is drained by streams that rise to the west, cross Ting Hsien in an easterly direction, and later join the Hu T'o Ho in An-kuo Hsien. That stream flows north to the Pai Ho, which enters the sea near Tientsin. The chief rivers are the T'ang, which runs about three miles north of Tingshsien city, and the Sha, which runs about eight miles to the south. The Meng Liang is a smaller watercourse that runs southeast between the two and joins the Sha in An-kuo Hsien. One branch of the Meng Liang comes up to the southeast corner of the city wall, where it connects with the old, now dry, city moat, which in one of the old records was described as 100 feet wide and 20 feet deep.

The rivers are generally swollen in summer time with the heavy rains, but in winter most of the watercourses are dry. The large Black Dragon Spring in the northwest part of the hsien insures a year round flow in the T'ang. The spring supplies enough water to irrigate some 2,090 mu of rice fields before it reaches the T'ang. There also used to be a large White Dragon Spring, but it was flooded and destroyed in the flood of 1801. The hsien history says that during the reign of Hsien Feng the Black Dragon Spring failed. The dragon king was said to have moved to a village in Ch'ing-yuan Hsien, Paoting, some 35 miles north, because too many people came to the pool to get fish. Later on, the elders of one of the villages near the spring, probably Tung Nan Ts'un, sent a

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four-horse wagon to bring the dragon king back. After his return the water came back to the spring. 133

At flood times the rivers have a tendency to break out of the old silted channels. In 1794 the T'ang broke through the dykes to the south and ran past the city wall into the Meng Liang. In the flood of 1801 it took a new channel to the north of its old bed, so that villages that had been on the north bank were then on the south bank. The damage caused by that flood was so extensive and so well remembered that a monument was erected in Tung Pan Ts'un stating: 133
731

In the sixth year of Chia Ch'ing the T'ang took a new bed. The crops were damaged and destroyed so that the people had no clothes and no food. Houses fell down. The people complained. The site of a large village became the bed of the river. The people wanted to escape. The village had about 200 families. About 100 families left. Now [1853] only 20 to 30 families remain.

The T'ang would probably have changed its course after the floods of 1917 and 1924, except that the breaks in the dykes were repaired and the river forced back into its old bed.

In 1810 the people of T'ang Hsien blocked the watercourse and cut off the flow of the T'ang to Ting Hsien. They were sued by the residents of Ting Hsien, but the case was not decided until 1826. Then the decision was in favor of Ting Hsien.

Through the years, the T'ang and Sha have had their part in China's history. Being two of the larger streams crossing the western part of the coastal plain, they have been advantageously placed for defense and have been the scene of numerous battles. The chief of these from the 6th to the 17th century are listed in the historical resumé in Chapter XIX. 133

The inhabitants of Ting Hsien lived in the walled city and its three suburbs, east, south, and west, 10 market towns, and 443 villages. The towns generally, but not always, had more families than the villages, did more business than the villages, had more stores, and had a larger proportion of non-farm families. All of the towns had markets, but so did 72 of the villages. As the differences between the towns and villages were largely those of degree we have grouped them together in our studies and counted them as 453 politically organized residence and farming areas. How they were distributed in the hsien is shown by the map on page 5. 361
369

6: Young et al.

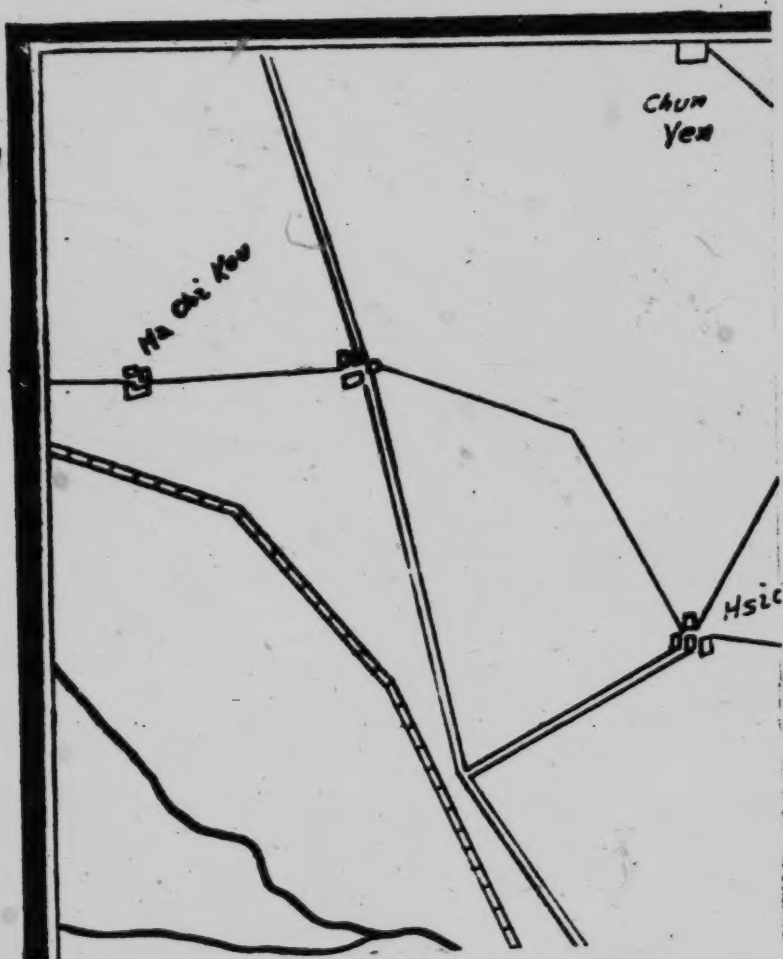
AF12 North China AF12

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A	B	C	D
E	F	G	H
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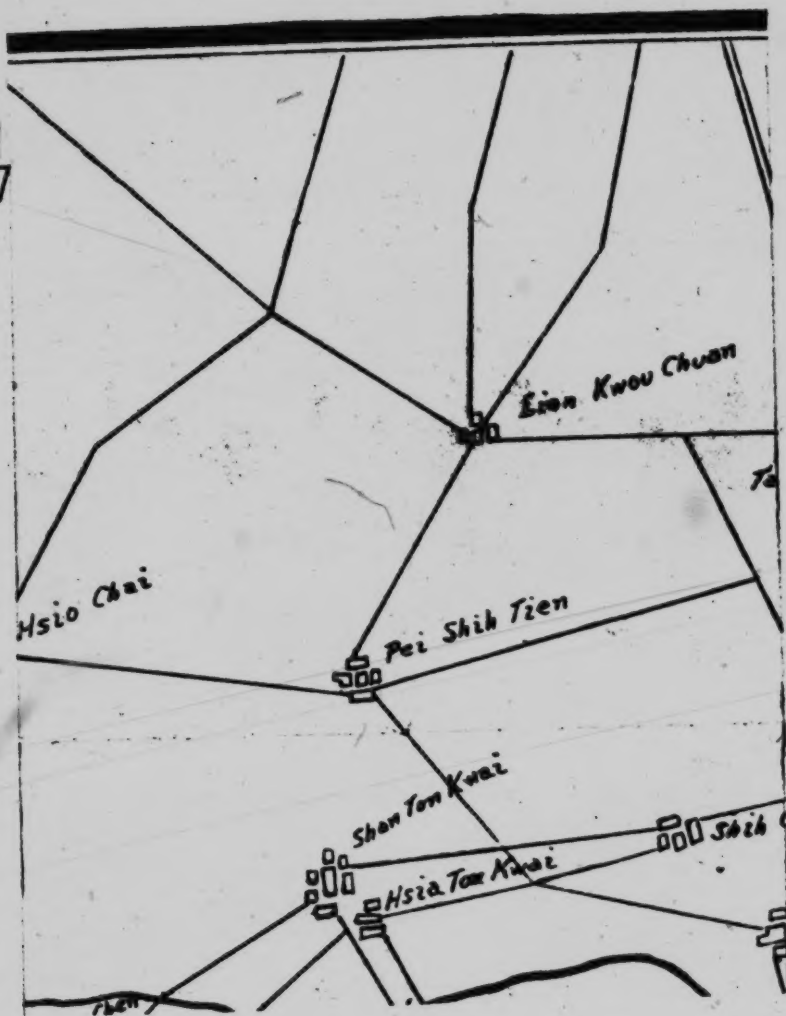
Chart of position of sections of end map.

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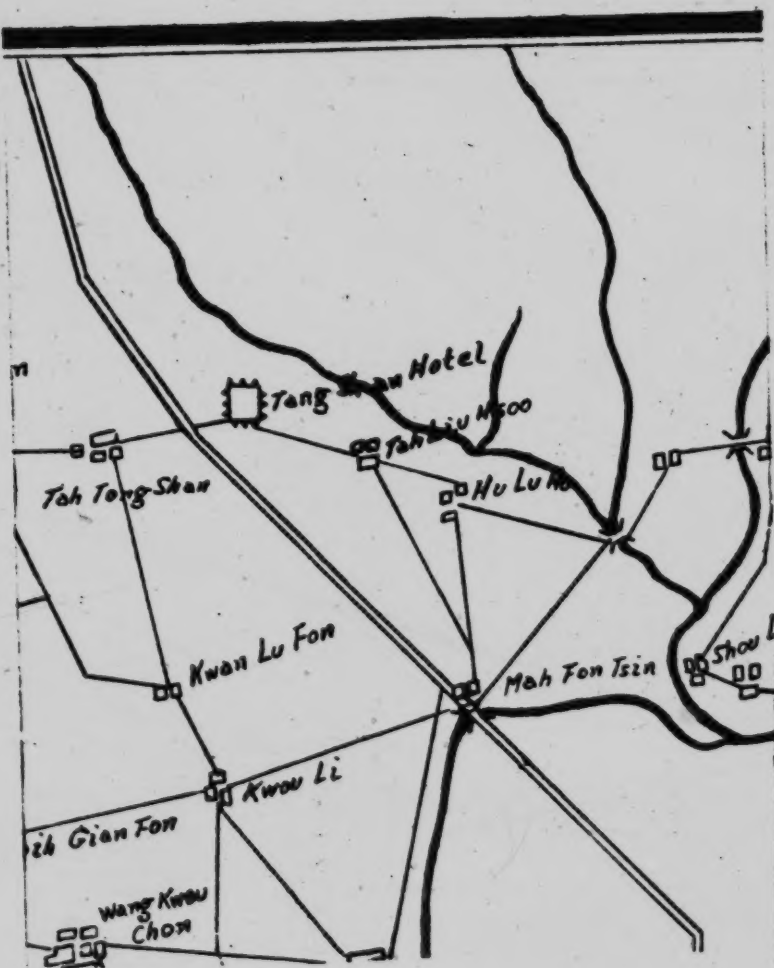
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● 133
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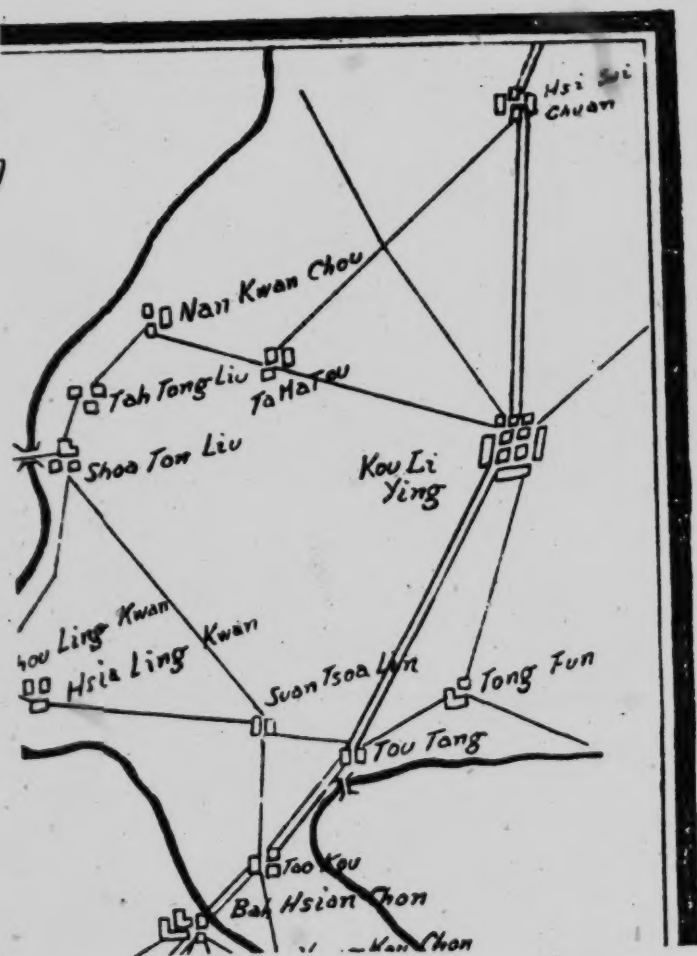
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[End Flap map C]

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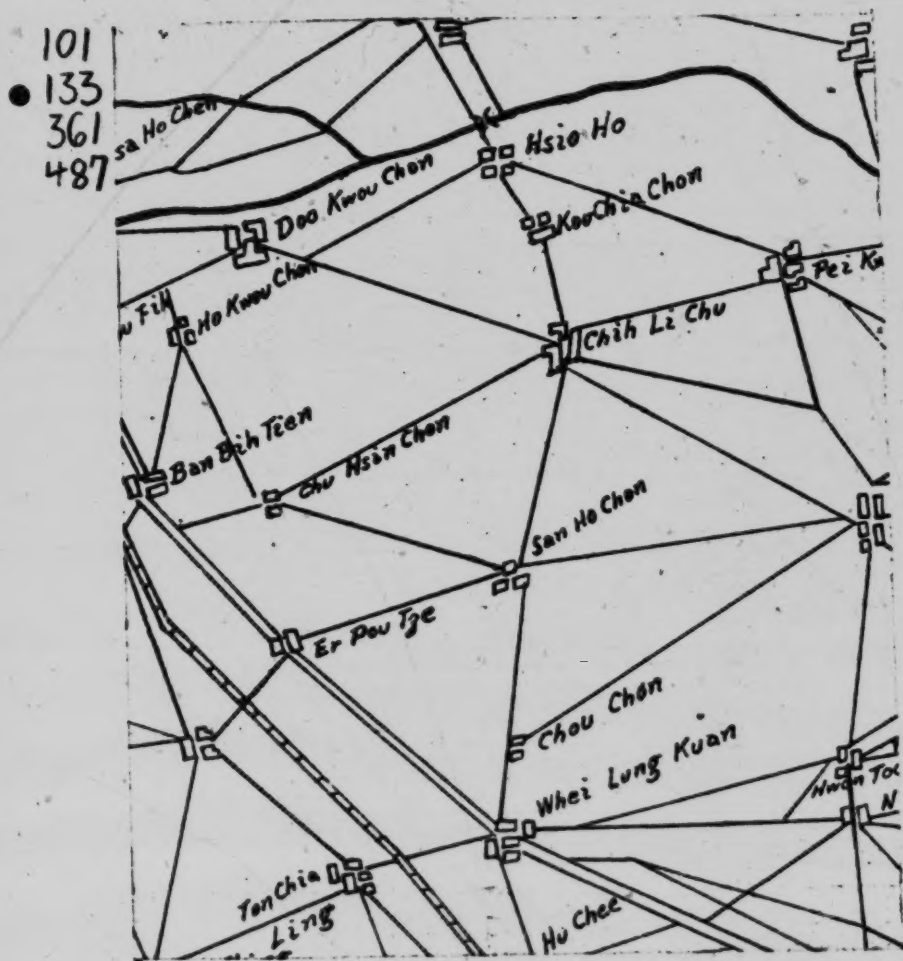


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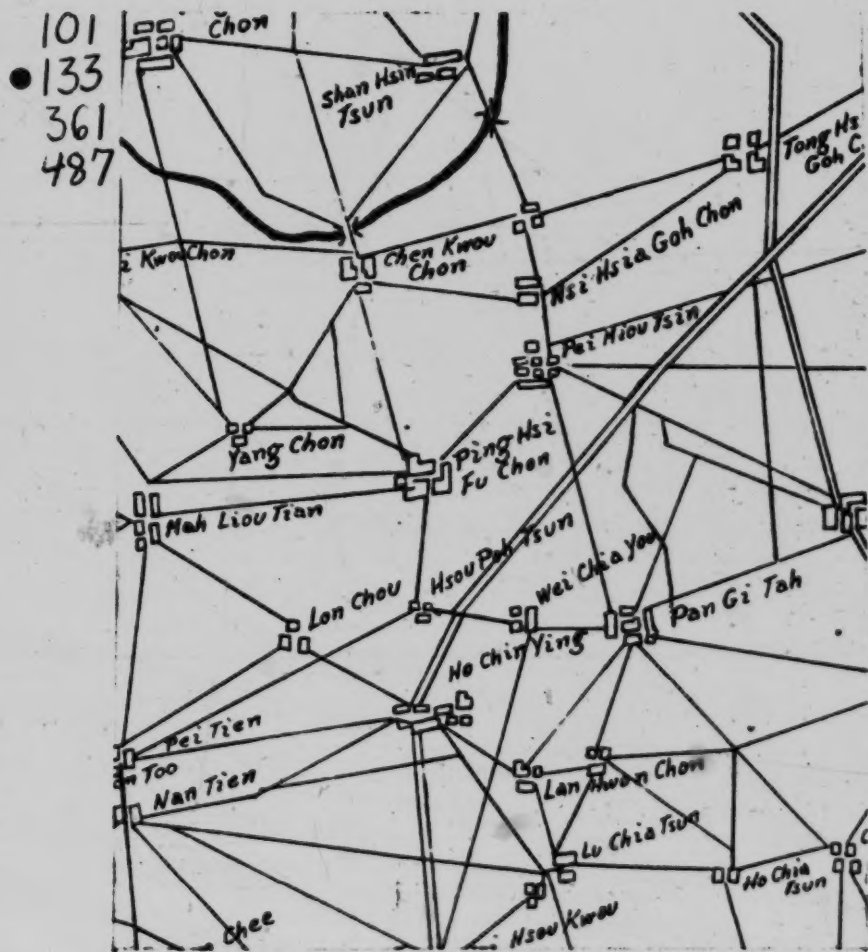
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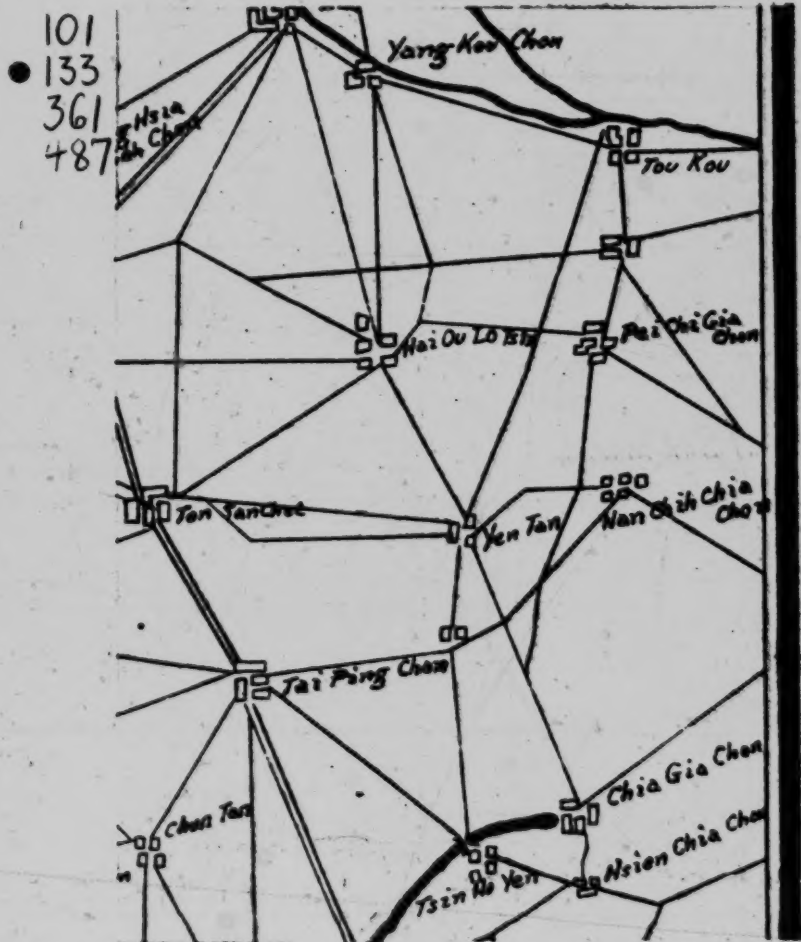
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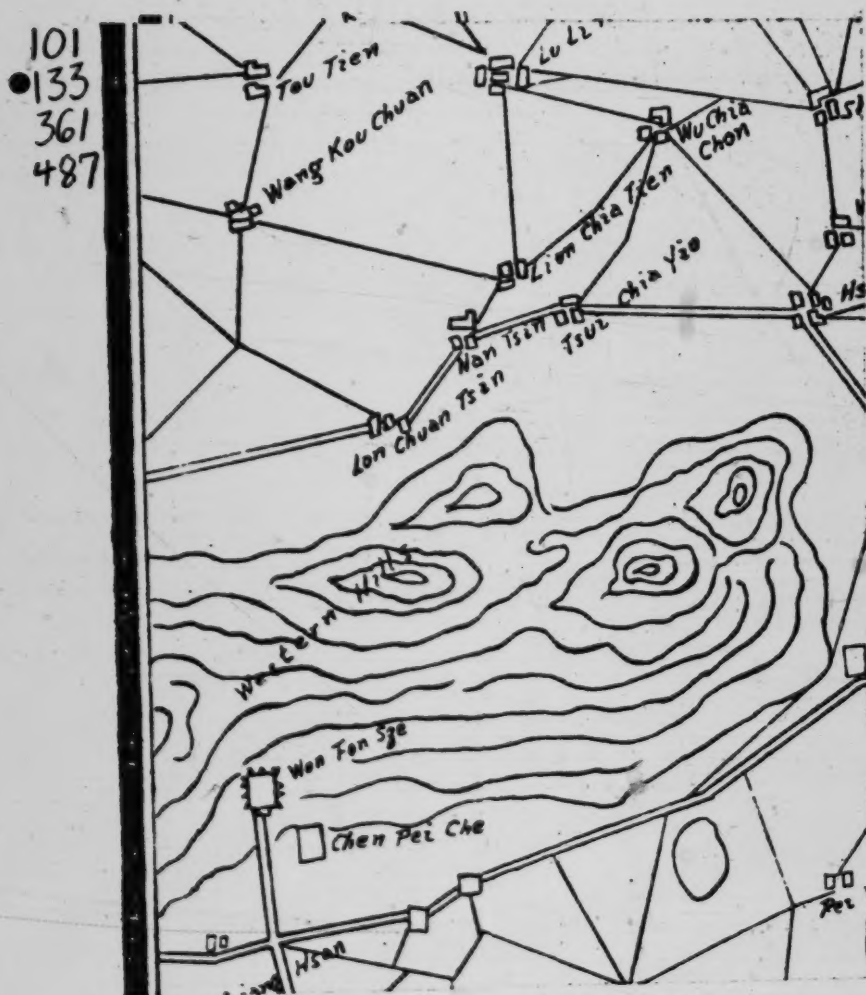
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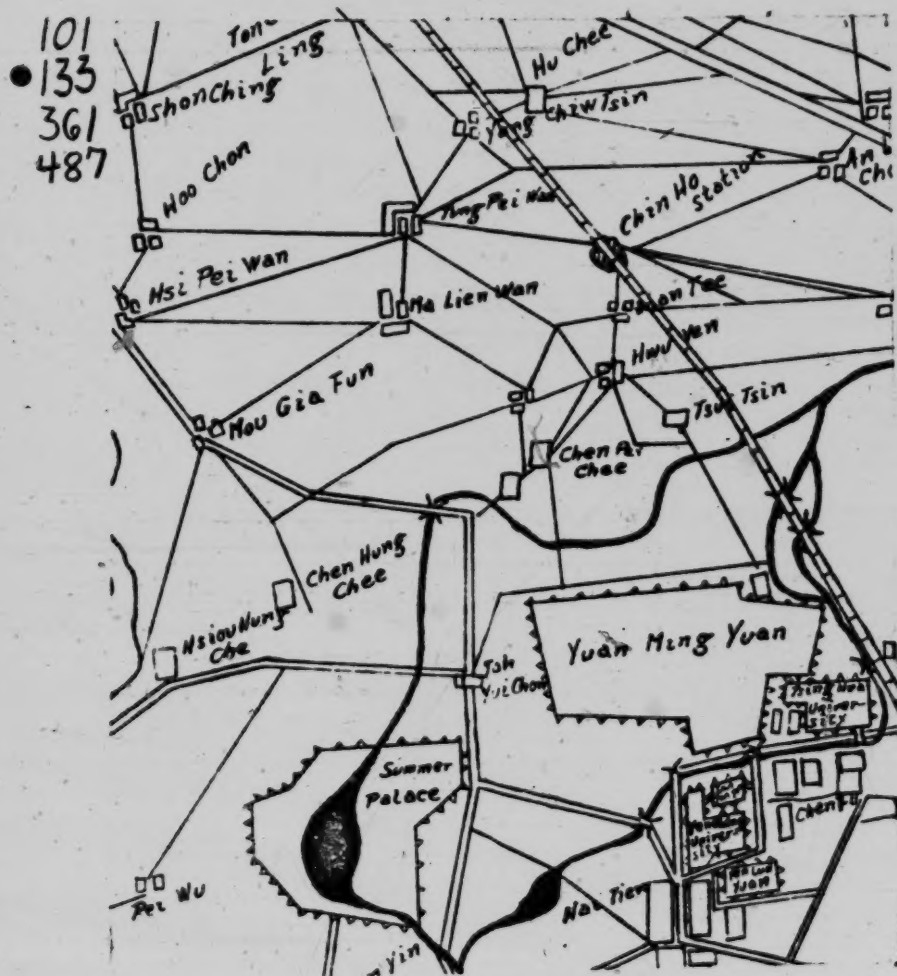
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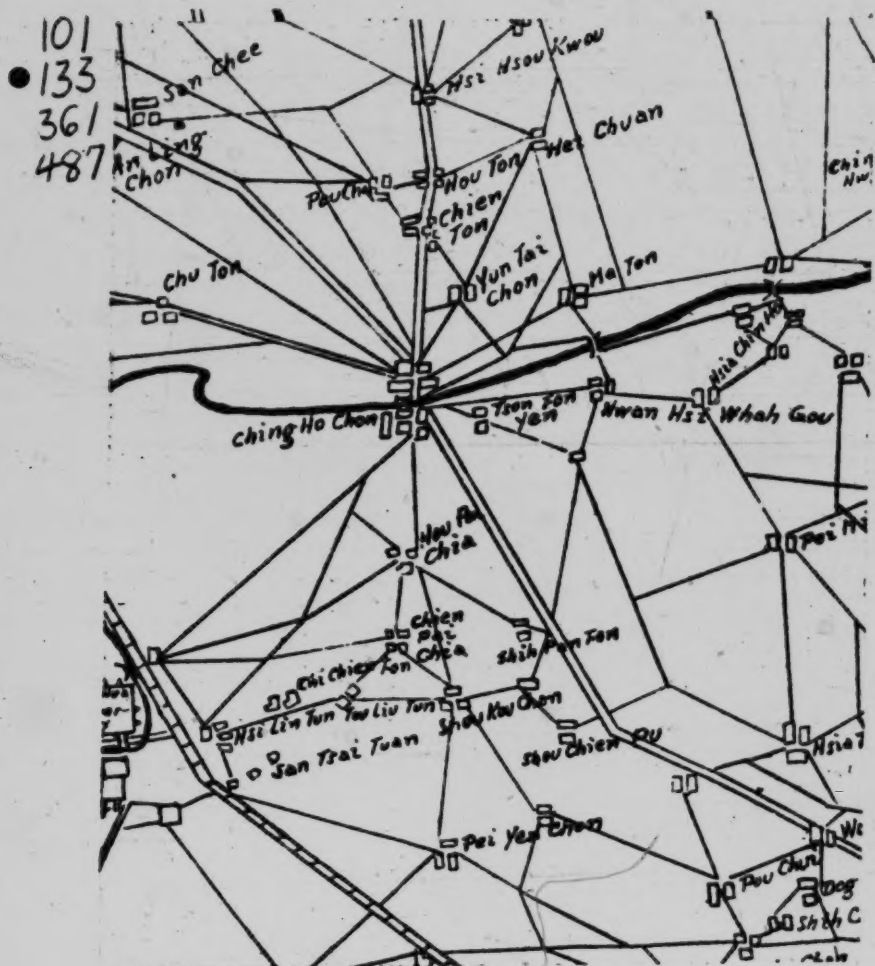
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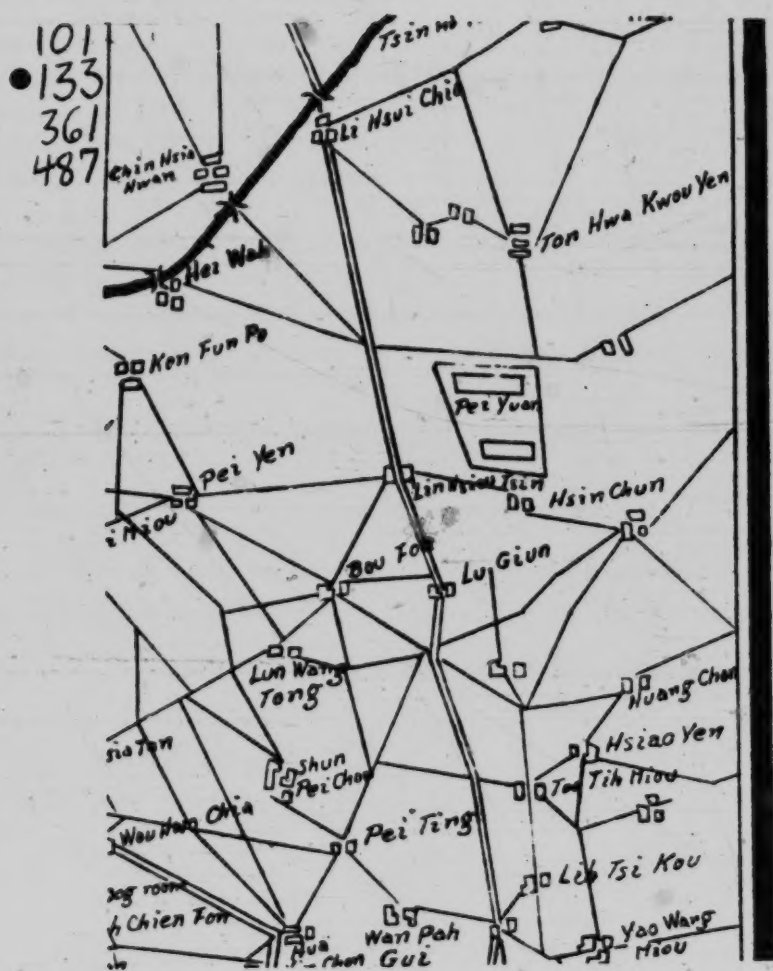
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[End Flap map J]

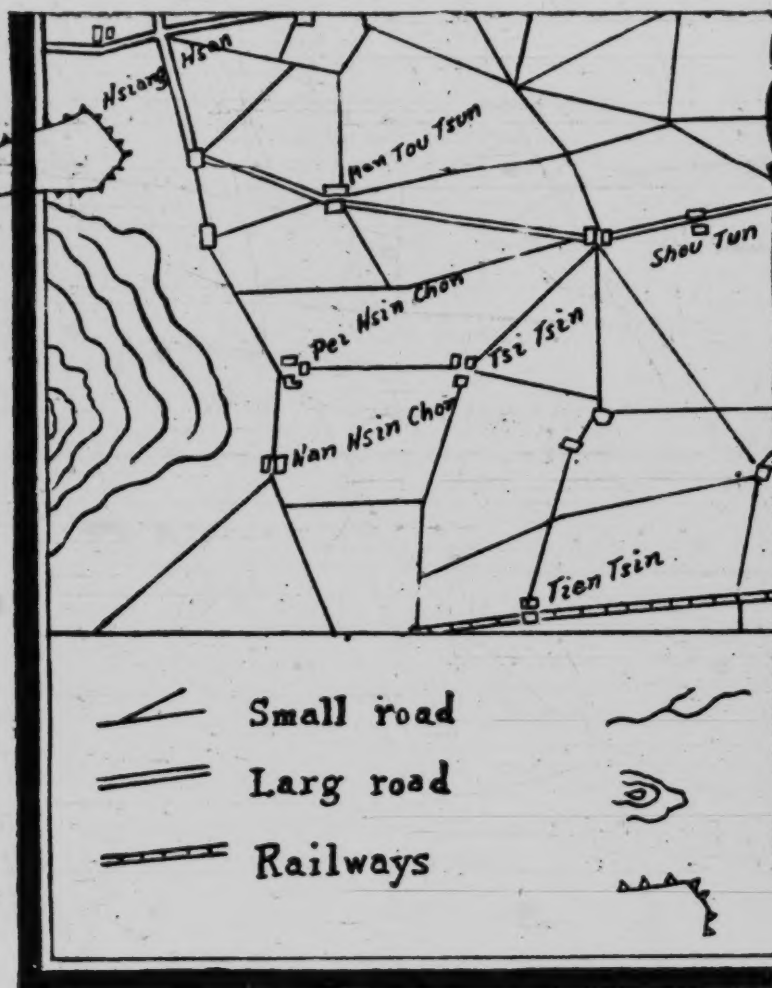


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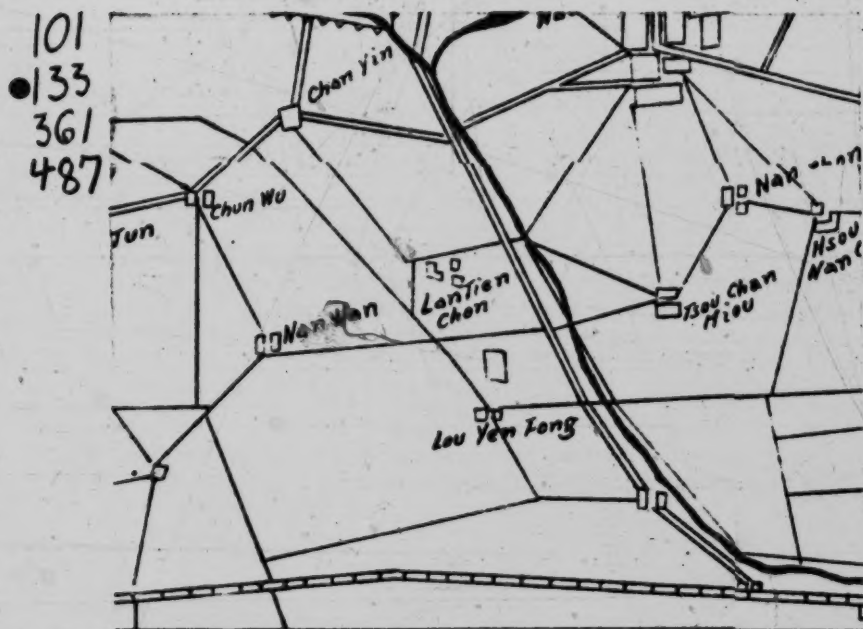


[End Flap map L]

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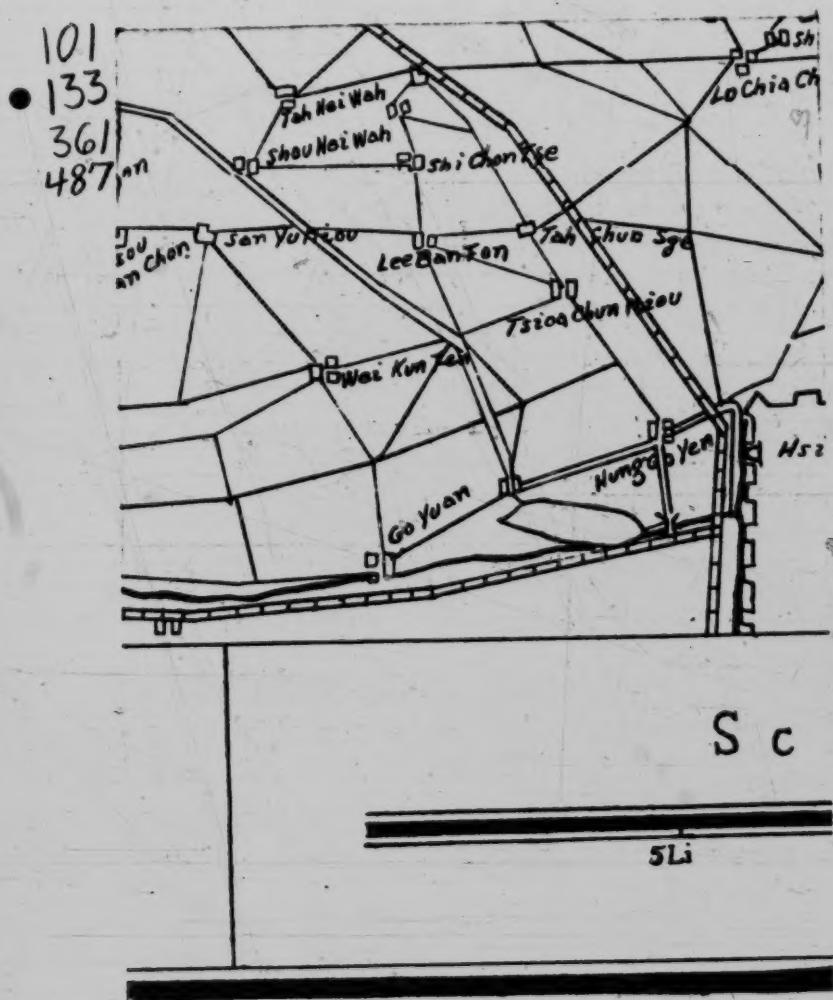


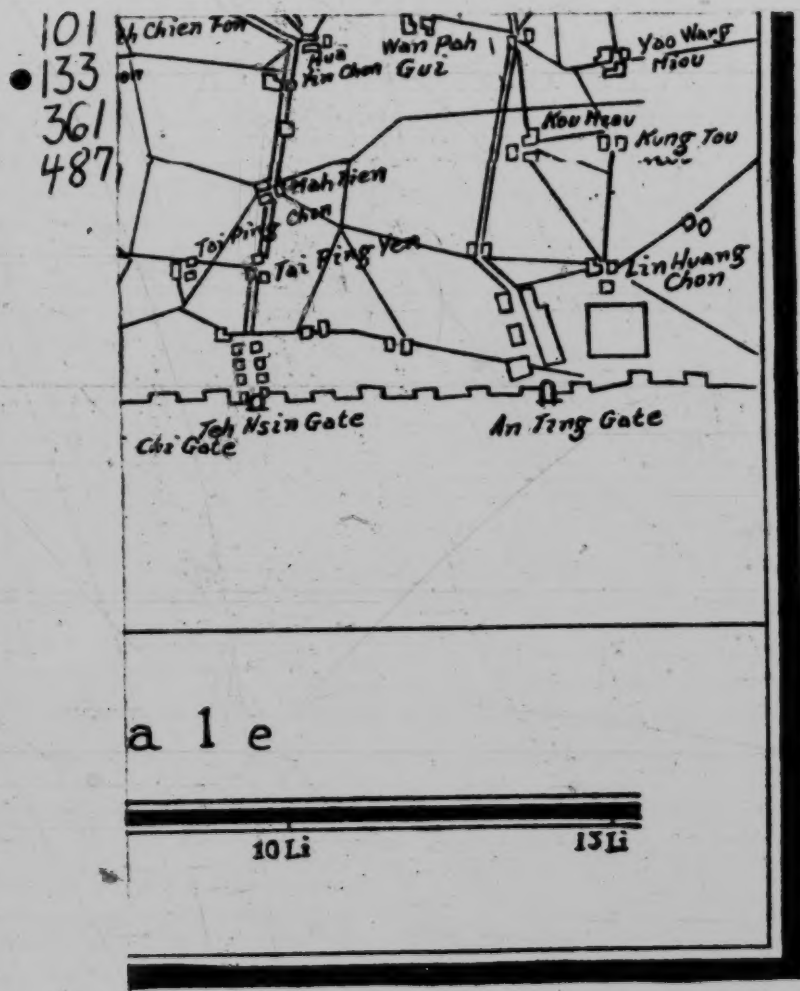
[End Flap map M]



- | | |
|----------|-----------|
| — River | Village |
| Mountain | X Bridge |
| Walls | City gate |

[End Flap map N]


$$[End\ Flap\ Map, 0]$$



[End Flap map P]

CHING HO: A SOCIOLOGICAL ANALYSIS

II. Geography

131 Ching Ho is situated about six miles or eighteen *li* from the nearest gate, the Te Sheng Men (德勝門) of Peping.

It is in the same longitude as Peping, and only a slightly higher latitude. The following figures will indicate the exact position to the reader:

Peping Longitude 116 24'- 28' latitude 39.54'-58'

Ching Ho „ 116 23'- 24' „ 40.1'-2'.

132 The land level is about twelve feet higher than Peping which has a land level of 122.3 above sea level. The climate, hot in summer, cold in winter, northwest wind, and sandstorms, is exactly like that of Peping, and typical of this part of the country. The rainfall record is very low with an average of about twenty inches per annum, most of which is precipitated during the months of June and July. The other ten months are very dry, and this accounts for frequent droughts. We shall not give any detailed account of climatic records here, because during our few months work in Ching Ho we did not make any, and it is needless to quote those made by government agencies in Peping.

• 133 A small river-the Ching Ho-flows through the town, from which Ching Ho derives its name. *Ching* means "clear" and *Ho* means "river". Thus its name signifies that the water of the river is very clear, and this is the case if the Ching Ho is compared with the other sand-carrying rivers in this region. Its source is a few miles southwest of the town in the famous Jade Spring Mountain. (玉泉山) The

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river flows northeast to Ching Ho town and then joins the *Sha Ho* (沙河) a few miles east. In olden times this small river was partly utilised for transportation purposes, but owing to the accumulation of sand in the river bed it is no longer navigable. 33

The soil is primarily a light sandy loam, typical of the district. The water table is at a moderate level except in the case of the hilliest parts which have rather a poor water supply. Soil fertility is normal although little artificial fertilizer has been applied to the land. The land is suitable for the cultivation of the ordinary northern crops, such as corn, sorgham (Kaoliang), wheat, beans, etc. Because of the amount of water obtainable from artesian wells it would be possible to introduce the cultivation of rice into this district as has been done around the Jade Spring Mountain. 34

After leaving Peping Ching Ho is the first halting place on the road to the northwest of China by the old government eighteen foot-wide highway which passes through the centre of the town on its way to Kalgan and Mongolia. In the old days it was kept in good repair, and served as a means of communication both for heavy transport and swift messages, but since the building of the Peking-Suiyuan Railway little attention has been paid to the old highway. Gradually the fields are encroaching on its great width, and the surface is becoming rough, making it very inconvenient to travel. It was thought that the building of the Peking-Suiyuan Railway with a station at Ching Ho would be a valuable asset to the town. Unfortunately the station was built a mile away from the town and 489